

Chemical sympathectomy: indications, technique and complications

Chemical sympathectomy is commonly performed for palmar or plantar hyperhidrosis, Buerger's disease, critical lower limb ischaemia where there is no revascularization option available and palliation of pain. The outcome varies from symptomatic improvement to failure, which may result in limb loss in the case of ischaemic limbs.

Sympathetic nerves are vasomotor to the smooth muscles of arterioles and pre-capillary sphincters, and secretomotor to the sweat glands. So decreasing the sympathetic activity is useful in hyperhidrosis and small vessel disease causing ischaemia of the extremities. Sympathetic nerves also act as afferents for pain sensations, which is exemplified by abolition of pain after chemical sympathectomy in complex pain syndromes and painful arterial ischaemias.

There are three ways of decreasing sympathetic drive to a particular area. They are surgical (open), chemical and regional drug-induced chemical sympathectomy. Open surgical sympathectomy has fallen out of favour because of associated morbidity, delay in resuming work, rare complications such as paraplegia and the availability of chemical and laparoscopic techniques. Chemical sympathectomy was first described by Brunn and Mandl in 1924 and has been used for peripheral vascular disease for at least 50 years. The results are comparable to open surgery (Courtheoux et al, 1982; Vulpio et al, 1989). Regional drug-induced sympathectomy using Bier's block shows an outcome that is comparable to surgical sympathectomy, however, there is a risk of sudden systemic toxicity from the medicine used. Thoracic chemical sympathectomy, clipping and thermal ablation of sympathetic ganglia are used for treating hyperhidrosis of the upper limbs and axilla and rarely for Raynaud's phenomenon. Lumbar chemical sympathectomy destroys both vasomotor and sensory fibres, resulting in the relief of ischaemic rest pain. This article reviews the indications, technique, effect and complications of chemical lumbar sympathectomy, which may be equally efficacious to surgical sympathectomy.

Indication for sympathectomy

Chemical sympathectomy is performed as a standalone procedure or as an adjunct to other procedures. The indications for sympathectomy are as follows. Although the long-term success rate is variable, the average immediate success rate is shown in brackets.

- Critical ischaemia of extremities where no further surgical option is available (35–100%)
- As an adjunct to limb amputation to hasten wound healing
- Buerger's disease (57%)
- Vasospastic attacks of the toes

- Palmo-plantar hyperhidrosis
- Sympathetic neuralgia
- Complex regional pain syndrome
- Causalgia following lumbar discectomy
- Palliation of abdominal pain from chronic pancreatitis or carcinoma of pancreas
- Erectile dysfunction related to increased cavernous adrenergic tone
- Neuropathic pain.

Technique

Thoracic or lumbar chemical sympathectomy may be performed under computed tomography (CT) or fluoroscopic guidance. Phenol is the most commonly used sympathectolytic solution. Other solutions that are used for sympathectomy include ethyl alcohol and a mixture of phenol and glycerine. Two studies showed variable results with ethyl alcohol (Dolansky et al, 1990; Sukovatykh et al, 2006).

Initially, the procedure and risks should be explained to the patient. The patient should be positioned appropriately. The technique described here is for lumbar chemical sympathectomy. The two positions that are commonly used for chemical sympathectomy are lateral and sitting, although prone and semi-prone positions have also been described (Klopfer, 1983). The position should be comfortable for both the surgeon and the patient, and the sitting posture is commonly acceptable to all. A spinal needle or similar long needle is used. If the procedure is performed under fluoroscopy, a radio-opaque contrast is required to confirm the position of the tip of the needle.

The area should be cleaned with an antiseptic and draped (*Figure 1*). First, 15 ml of 1% plain lignocaine is infiltrated into the paraspinal region at the level of the L2 vertebra (from skin to retroperitoneum), then 7–10 ml of 5% oily phenol is mixed with 7–10 ml of omipaque or a similar contrast. The needle is inserted at the level of the anterior border of the L2 vertebra – the solution should be injected into the retroperitoneal

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Figure 1. Surface marking for paraspinal chemical sympathetic injection at the level of L2 vertebra.

space under X-ray control (Figures 2 and 3). The aim is to achieve neurolysis of the sympathetic nervous system at L2, L3 and L4 levels. The injection should be localized to the retroperitoneum and should not enter the peritoneal cavity. Some surgeons advise the patient to sit up for a few hours post lumbar sympatholysis so that the chemical can track down along the sympathetic chain to achieve the desired effect. Sympatholysis may result with as little as 3 ml of phenol. For the CT-guided procedure 21G or 22G fine needles may be useful. Successful lumbar sympatholysis results in a rise in skin temperature in parts of the sock distribution of between 0.8 and 8.5°C when measured by thermography. The patient is observed for any complication and usually discharged home after 24 hours.

Complications

Complications of chemical sympatholysis can be avoided by careful planning. By always aspirating before injecting the phenol, it is possible to ensure that the needle is not inside the great vessels such as the inferior vena cava or aorta. Common complications of lumbar sympatholysis include compensatory hyperhidrosis, vasovagal attack

Figure 2. The sitting position of the patient and the position of the C-arm which is kept horizontal.

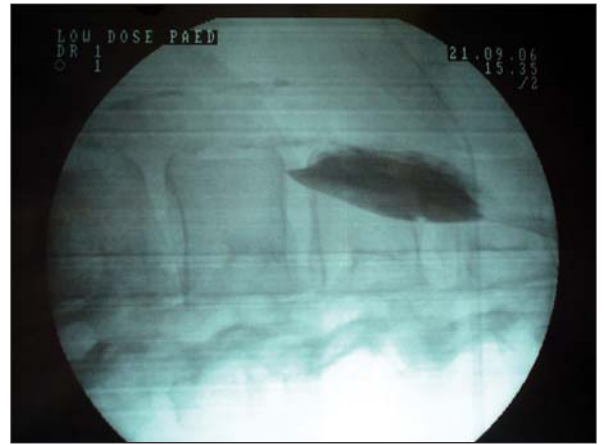


Figure 3. Injection of mixture of contrast material and oily phenol at the level of L2 vertebra to achieve chemical sympatholysis.

and bleeding into the psoas muscle. Uncommon complications of lumbar sympatholysis include damage to the ureter and pelvi-ureteric junction disruption, transient neuralgia of the genitofemoral nerve, injury to blood vessels and spinal cord ischaemia.

Complications of thoracic sympatholysis include compensatory hyperhidrosis and vasovagal attack. Rare complications of thoracic sympatholysis include pneumothorax, brachial neuralgia, Horner's syndrome and injury to great vessels.

Chemical sympatholysis may be followed by compensatory and gustatory sweating. There are reports showing that chemical lumbar sympatholysis may result in ureteric necrosis requiring nephrectomy. The ureteric necrosis may be the effect of sympatholysis rather than the direct effect of phenol (Trigaux et al, 1992).

Discussion

Pathophysiological effects of sympatholysis

Chemical sympatholysis has been used for at least the last five decades. A PubMed search showed only one small randomized control trial on chemical sympatholysis comparing phenol with local anaesthetic. There were nine papers on the outcome of chemical sympatholysis (Table 1). Lumbar sympatholysis severs both vasomotor and sensory fibres (Coventry and Walsh, 2003). Doppler ankle pressure does not improve significantly after sympatholysis (Weyland et al, 1993), but most patients are relieved of rest pain. This may mean that there is no significant improvement in blood flow after sympatholysis. Chemical sympatholysis in these circumstances is probably acting as a pain-relieving injection by destroying fibres that carry pain sensation (Cross and Cotton, 1985).

Chemical sympatholysis improves perfusion in skeletal muscle and skin (Schneider et al, 1996). The outcome of chemical sympatholysis on ankle:brachial pressure index (ABPI) in normal individuals or those with an early form of arterial disease is not yet known. Chemical sympatholysis is often performed for irreconstructable arterial disease. The large vessels and microvasculature are usu-

ally diseased and often calcified. Sometimes the micro vessels may be maximally vasodilated by compensatory mechanisms such as aut sympathectomy, so one should not expect the ABPI to improve in irreversible vascular disease. Sympathectomy may open up arteriovenous shunts rather than dilating arterioles. No substantial difference is found between the results of sympathectomy in diabetic and non-diabetic patients (Dolansky et al, 1990). Chemical sympathectomy has been used with success in patients with pain after lumbar discectomy presenting with causalgia. In causalgia, the patient experiences burning pain and hyperaesthesia in the distribution of an injured peripheral nerve. Selective use of chemical sympathectomy is certainly a useful procedure in palliating at least some critically ischaemic limbs and patients with chronic pain syndromes. Phenol should be injected away from the spinal cord and motor nerves because of the risk of flaccid paralysis.

Animal experiments show that sympathectomy also influences the major vessels. It causes migration of fibroblasts from the adventitia and migration or death of smooth muscle cells in vessels such as the femoral artery (Kacem and Sercombe, 2006; Kacem et al, 2006). Sympathetic nerves increase protein synthesis in oxidative skeletal muscles (Navegantes et al, 2004).

Endoscopic ultrasound may be useful in achieving neurolysis for pain related to pancreatic cancer. The relief of pain following coeliac ganglion sympathectomy in pancreatitis is 60–80% and in pancreatic cancer is 80–100% (Schneider et al, 1996).

Chemical sympathectomy

A small retrospective study (Lantsberg and Goldman, 1990) on 21 patients assessed the effect of chemical sympathectomy and found that there was subjective improvement in 20 patients, which was associated with increased cutaneous blood flow as measured by laser Doppler and transcutaneous oxygen tension techniques. Chemical sympathectomy improves cutaneous blood flow below knee level and may enhance primary wound healing in cases of below-knee amputation. CT-guided sympathectomy provides results similar to endoscopic thoracic sympathectomy and is associated with fewer risks (Horma Babana et al, 2004). Aqueous phenol solution is an effective and safe technique for neurolysis and ethanol neurolysis showed variable outcome.

The only published prospective double-blind trial was performed by Cross and Cotton (1985). Phenol chemical sympathectomy was compared with bupivacaine injection in 41 limbs (24 treatment and 17 control). Rest pain was relieved in 83.5% of patients at 1 week with a bupivacaine response of 23.5%. There was no demonstrable improvement in ABPI. Another showed insignificant increase in ABPI after chemical lumbar sympathectomy (Weyland et al, 1993).

Surgical lumbar sympathectomy vs chemical sympathectomy

Two studies compared the outcomes of surgical (open) lumbar sympathectomy vs chemical sympathectomy. In the smaller study there were 76 patients. The 6-week success

Table 1. Studies of chemical sympathectomy

Reference	Study	Details	Follow up	Outcome
Holiday et al (1999)	Surgical vs chemical sympathectomy	76 limbs of 70 patients with critically ischaemic lower limb	1 year	Limb salvage rates were 61% for surgical and 58% for chemical sympathectomy
Mashiah et al (1995)	Outcome of chemical lumbar sympathectomy	373 patients	Up to 10 years	In 58.7%, total relief from pain and healing of gangrenous ulcers
Romano et al (2002)	Computed tomography-guided thoracic sympathetic neurolysis	30 upper limbs in patients with palmar/axillary hyperhidrosis	2 years	Two patients developed Horner's syndrome which later resolved, two patients developed pain in the arm which resolved, three patients developed compensatory sweating
Cross and Cotton (1985)	Randomized controlled trial of phenol chemical sympathectomy vs placebo bupivacaine	41 limbs (24 treatment and 17 control)	6 months	60% of patients remained free from rest pain
Becquemin et al (1989)	Chemical vs surgical lumbar sympathectomy	428 patients	1 month	Chemical sympathectomy had lower hospital stay and equally efficacious as surgery
Vulpio et al (1989)	Outcome of chemical lumbar sympathectomy	20 patients	2 years	52% limb salvage results
Dolansky et al (1990)	Outcome of chemical lumbar sympathectomy using ethanol	47 patients	6 months	In four fifths of patients limb ischaemia became worse
Alexander (1994)	Outcome of chemical lumbar sympathectomy	489 patients	2 years	44% lost either limb or life
Zhao et al (2003)	Treatment of Raynaud's syndrome with chemical thoracic sympathectomy	35 patients	9 months	66% obtained relief from symptoms
Horma Babana et al (2004)	Computed tomography-guided sympathectomy for palmar hyperhidrosis	101 limbs	50 months	62% effective. Six patients developed transient Horner's syndrome and six other patients developed compensatory hyperhidrosis

rate in 36 patients treated with surgical lumbar sympathectomy (44%) was better than in 40 patients treated with chemical lumbar sympathectomy (18%) (Holiday et al, 1999). However, the 1-year success rate was similar (47% for surgical and 45% for chemical lumbar sympathectomy). The 1-year limb salvage rates were also similar (61% for surgical and 58% for chemical lumbar sympathectomy). In the larger prospective study, 428 patients were assessed (Becquemin et al, 1989). The results of surgical and chemical sympathectomies were the same but hospital stay was 24 hours following chemical sympathectomy rather than 10 days following open sympathectomy. Sympathectomy in either form resulted in poor outcome when compared with arterial bypass.

Chemical lumbar sympathectomy for peripheral vascular disease

Four studies assessed the outcome of chemical lumbar sympathectomy for peripheral vascular disease. In the first study, phenol lumbar sympathectomy was performed on 373 patients, of whom 226 were diabetic. The patients were followed up for 10 years. A total of 219 patients experienced complete relief from pain and healing of gangrene or ischaemic ulcers. The treatment was unsuccessful in 154 patients (Mashiah et al, 1995). Diabetic patients with rest pain and non-diabetics with digital ulcer or gangrene responded to the treatment. Age did not influence the outcome. Heavy smokers did badly possibly because the vessels were badly damaged. The second small study on 20 patients, which assessed the effect of chemical sympathectomy on critically ischaemic limb, showed that it was useful in 50% (Vulpio et al, 1989).

A third study assessed the effect of 47 CT-guided transabdominal lumbar sympathectomies by ethyl alcohol in surgically inoperable lower extremity arteries (Dolansky et al, 1990). In four fifths of the patients there was an increase in ischaemia manifestations, but in one fifth there was no improvement. No substantial difference was found between the results of sympathectomy in diabetic and non-diabetic patients. In a large fourth study, a single author performed 544 chemical lumbar sympathectomies with phenol in 489 patients with peripheral vascular disease (Alexander, 1994). Although 72% of patients showed early symptomatic improvement, 44% suffered from either loss of limb or life within 2 years of sympathectomy.

KEY POINTS

- Chemical sympathectomy is useful in relieving pain in several complex pain syndromes.
- Chemical sympathectomy destroys both vasomotor and pain fibres.
- Chemical sympathectomy is useful in critical limb ischaemia when there is no revascularization option available.
- Ankle:brachial pressure index will not be improved by sympathectomy.

Thoracic sympathectomy

Three studies assessed the outcome of thoracic sympathectomy. In the first study, CT-guided injection of a 2–10 ml mixture of a solution containing phenol 8%, glycerine 20% and saline was administered with 22G needles into the paraspinal space at the T3 level through a paraspinal extrapleural approach (Romano et al, 2002). The sympathectomy was performed for palmar and axillary hyperhidrosis. The result was satisfactory in almost all patients – although there were few initial minor complications, at the end of 2 years there was 100% patient satisfaction. A second study assessed the effect of chemical sympathectomy for Raynaud's syndrome on 35 patients. A 2 ml injection of 5% phenol was administered to the second or third thoracic sympathetic ganglion (Zhao et al, 2003). Follow up at 9 months showed that it was 66% effective in relieving symptoms. The third study was a CT-guided sympathectomy for palmar hyperhidrosis on 101 limbs. It was 62% effective in 50 months. Six patients developed compensatory hyperhidrosis and six other patients developed transient Horner's syndrome. Thoracic chemical sympathectomy may be impossible when there are extensive pleural adhesions.

Conclusions

Chemical sympathectomy is useful in treatment of hyperhidrosis of the palms, axillae and soles. It is effective in palliating 50% of patients with an inoperable critically ischaemic foot. It may also be useful in Raynaud's phenomena and palliation of pain from carcinoma of pancreas and chronic pancreatitis. The current practice of chemical sympathectomy is based on limited evidence. Evidence from randomized controlled trials is required before recommending chemical sympathectomy either as a standalone procedure or as adjuvant to other vascular surgical procedures as a matter of routine. **BJHM**

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